

# The Classical Weekly

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WHOLE No. 358

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# The Classical Weekly

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## REMARKS ON THE CICERO ANSWER-BOOKS OF THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE BOARD EXAMINATIONS<sup>1</sup>

Many years ago I had an experience that was permanently illuminating. Among the requirements at Columbia University for the degree of A.M. with Latin as the subject of major interest, was, and still is, proof of the ability to write in Latin. This proof may be furnished by a translation into Latin of a passage of reasonable length taken from some modern book, as for example, Merivale's History of the Romans under the Empire. In accordance with this regulation, there was presented, for my examination and report, such a rendering of a number of pages from a recent popular history of Italy. As I read the translation I became aware of the fact that the writer, a new student at Columbia, was quite accurate in the use of forms and in the handling of the syntax, both of the noun and of the verb; this accuracy was indeed rather noteworthy. Yet the translation, as a whole, was simply English in Latin words. Very few sentences were conceived or expressed as a Roman would have conveyed such ideas. I was forced to observe that it was evidently possible to study Latin for four years in High School and three years in College and to gain an admirable control of the strictly grammatical usages of the language, without apparently ever discovering that the mechanism of English and that of Latin are quite different in all that goes to make up the individuality of a language. The failure to discover this difference was not due to any lack of intelligence, for in a single interview I was able to make clear the character of the change that was desired throughout the translation. The second version, though not a masterpiece, was quite acceptable.

The problems about which I have to speak to you to-day are as old as our profession, and we must still admit that we have not yet been able to solve them, perhaps never shall be able to solve them to our satisfaction on the large scale made necessary by the organization of Secondary instruction in the United States. There is no reason, however, why we should be greatly discouraged, for our success compares rather favorably with the success attained by our colleagues in other fields of instruction. But we cannot afford to be content, for the simple reason that teaching, like everything else in the world, either improves or deteriorates as the weeks pass. A static condition is a prelude to

the loss of vitality and a merely routine conduct of the work. If, therefore, I present to you some disturbing results of the College Entrance Examination Board's examination in Cicero last June, do not think that I am joining in that denunciation of methods and results in the teaching of Latin with which we have become so familiar. I present these facts in quite a different spirit, as a member of the guild who, like all his fellow-members in good standing, needs be ever on the alert to improve, in at least some slight degree, conditions that sorely perplex and distress every self-respecting member.

As I have studied the results of the examinations each year during the nineteen years of my work with the Board, I have seen, or have seemed to see, the same factors operating every year to make these results unsatisfactory. Failure to observe, failure to interpret the facts when observed, failure to correlate these facts with the experiences of daily life, are, in many different guises, the causes which disappoint our hopes. Every year, therefore, the problem is the same—how to persuade our protégés to see with their brains the words that meet their eyes, to make correctly the proper connection between these words and the ideas for which they stand, and to express the conclusions thus reached in an English form that will convey them clearly to another mind. In 1901, and again in 1911, Professor Charles E. Bennett published, in collaboration with Professor George P. Bristol, a very interesting volume entitled *The Teaching of Latin and Greek in the Secondary School*. In the course of his discussion of the advantages of the study of Latin, Professor Bennett quotes (pages 22-23) President Eliot's statement<sup>2</sup> of the four essential processes which should be involved in any rational and effective system of instruction. These are:

1. The process of "observation; that is to say, the alert, intent, and accurate use of all the senses. Whoever wishes to ascertain a present fact must do it through the exercise of this power of observation . . . Facts, diligently sought for and firmly established, are the only foundations of sound reasoning.

2. The next function, process, or operation which education should develop in the individual is the function of making a correct record of things observed. The record may be mental only, that is, stamped on the memory, or it may be reduced to writing or print. . . . This power of accurate description or recording is identical in all fields of inquiry.

3. The next mental function which education should develop, if it is to increase reasoning power and general intelligence, is the faculty of drawing correct inferences from recorded observations. This faculty is almost identical with the faculty of grouping or coordinating

<sup>1</sup>This paper was read at the First Fall Meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, held at the University of Pennsylvania, November 29, 1919.

<sup>2</sup>American Contributions to Civilization, 203 ff.

kindred facts, comparing one group with another or with all the others, and then drawing an inference which is sure in proportion to the number of cases, instances, or experiences on which it is based. This power is developed by practice in induction.

4. Fourthly, education should cultivate the power of expressing one's thoughts clearly, concisely, and cogently".

These, according to President Eliot, are the four essential processes of the educated mind: observing accurately; recording correctly; comparing, grouping, and inferring justly; and expressing the result of these operations with clearness and force.

Professor Bennett then proceeds to claim (23-27), with justice, as we all agree, that the study of Latin, when the language is well taught, promotes in an eminent degree these four processes or operations. President Eliot's book, from which Professor Bennett made his quotation, was published in 1897. In the latter part of 1918, twenty-one years later, in an address delivered in Carnegie Hall, New York City, and published in *School and Society*, January 4, 1919 (9.1-10), on *Defects in American Education Revealed by the War*, Dr. Eliot emphasizes again the need of training in observation (4):

The war has made plain to multitudes of people what was known before to a few, that human testimony is as a rule untrustworthy, not because the witnesses intended to deceive but because they were unable to see, hear, or describe correctly what happened in their presence. This inability to see, hear, touch, and describe accurately is by no means confined to ignorant or uneducated people. Many highly educated American professional men have never received any scientific training, have never used any instrument of precision, possess no manual skill whatever, and can not draw, sing, or play upon a musical instrument. Their entire education dwelt in the region of language, literature, philosophy and history. Their habits of thought permit vagueness, obscurity, and inaccuracy, and their spoken or written statements have these same defects. These facts suggest strongly the urgent need of modifying profoundly the programs of American elementary and secondary schools. They must no longer cling almost exclusively to languages and literature and the elements of mathematics. They must give a considerable part of school time to the sciences and arts and to the acquisition by every pupil of some skill of eye or hand or both, and at the same time must increase rather than diminish the amount of training they give in memorizing to hold, in discrimination between the true and false, the wise and the foolish, the good and the bad, in the selection of premises, and in sound reasoning.

You will note that Dr. Eliot does not regard the study of languages, literature, philosophy, and history as conducive to habits of thought that are free from "vagueness, obscurity, and inaccuracy". With this view, we cannot, of course, be expected to agree. And yet, I should like at this time to ask your most serious consideration of the question whether, since we deal with words and since words are at best but symbols, we really do utilize every reasonable means of attaining accuracy by linking these symbols with the objective facts for which they stand. It is a matter of common experience, I think, that ever so many minds will behave quite sensibly when in contact with things and yet behave

quite irrationally when dealing with mere verbal descriptions of the same things. In this latter case, unless the scene, the dramatic occasion which the words describe is in some measure as vividly before the mental vision as the actual occurrence would have been before the physical eyes, the mind will be unable to deal with it in any vital fashion. Consider for one instant how enormously greater is the effect of a moving picture in comparison with even a vivid description of the same scene. We must admit too, as current discussion is constantly proving to us, that words and sentences do not mean the same thing to all minds, and that there is thus necessarily a danger of "vagueness, obscurity, and inaccuracy" whenever words instead of concrete material are used to convey a picture from one mind to another. Personally, I have long been confident that all literature should be taught as a form of dramatic action. Whatever be the subject, our protégés should be induced to regard it as material which they are about to stage, so that they will have to consider in the light of the text before them the choice of scenery, the costume of the actors, the bearing and the tones of voice of those actors which will be most natural to express the feeling back of the Latin words which they have to utter. The words will still be symbols of facts, but the attention will thus necessarily always be concerned with the facts themselves as such facts have their regular significance in every day life.

The examinations seem to support President Eliot's position, at least to this extent, that training in more accurate observation is still sadly needed. I find that the psychologist to-day, in attempting to estimate intelligence, is very anxious to discover precisely how observant a given human being is. I have been examining lately the question papers in the psychological tests used this fall by Columbia and not a few other Institutions. A very considerable part of the three hours allowed for the total examination was assigned to problems that in a great variety of ways tested precision of observation and simple correlation of the things that were observed. Let me give you a few examples.

There were, on a line, nine small circles numbered consecutively. The candidate was asked to draw a line from circle 5 to circle 8 that would pass *below* circle 6 and *above* circle 7.

There were, in a line, three circles followed by three words—"military"—"gun"—"camp". The directions were:

Notice the three circles and the three words. In the first circle, make the fourth letter of the last word; in the second circle make the third letter of the last word, and in the third circle make the second letter of the last word.

In this group there were five problems of this general character, some even simpler than those which I have cited. So far as I can understand the purpose of the examiners, these problems were set to test in the simplest form precision of observation, and precision in the subsequent handling of the simple things that were

observed. I cannot, of course, give you, in the time at my disposal, any adequate idea of the variety of these groups. There were over thirty-six groups and one group had as many as sixty problems or statements with which the candidates had to deal. They were told, at the outset, that no one could possibly be expected to complete the entire examination in the three hours that were allowed; that, therefore, they should answer as many questions as they possibly could but not be disturbed if they were forced to leave many untouched. You will observe that *speed* was thus made a prime factor and that the problems set involved only such difficulties as might be solved rather quickly by a reasonably intelligent mind. Let me cite, then, examples of two or three other groups a trifle more difficult than the groups I have already mentioned, before I discuss the particular group that seems to me to be most relevant to our own difficulties in the teaching of Latin. On one page the candidate found the following directions:

In the lines below, each number is gotten in a certain way from the numbers coming before it. Study out what this way is in each line, and then write, in the space left for it, the number that should come next. The first two lines are already filled in as they should be.

These first two lines ran as follows:

2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and then, in italics, 12;  
11, 12, 14, 15, 17 and then, in italics, 18.

There followed ten series of numbers, each on a separate line, with a space at the end for the number which was to be supplied. For example:

1, 10, 100, 1000, —  
48, 55, 62, 69, —  
 $1/2$ ,  $1/4$ ,  $1/8$ ,  $1/16$ , —  
74, 76, 77, 79, 80, 82, —  
35, 32, 30, 29, 26, 24, 23, 20, —

Another group was made up as follows. On the right hand page of the pamphlet which contained all the different groups of a single section of the examination, the candidate saw ten different geometrical figures, some of them heavily shaded; five numbers, each of eight figures (for example, 72989625), and five very curious combinations of lines in a certain way suggestive of hieroglyphics. These twenty separate items were numbered consecutively from 1-20. The directions at the top of the page were as follows:

Look at No. 1 on this page long enough to get it in mind. Then turn over the leaf, find the same thing on page 10 or 11, and write 1 under it. Then look at No. 2 on this page, turn over the leaf, find it and write 2 under it. Do the same with No. 3, No. 4, etc.

When the candidate turned over the leaf, he found 100 geometrical figures, out of which he had to pick 10 to match the 10 on the previous page. The five numbers had to be identified in a group of fifty, the five quasi-hieroglyphics in a similar group of fifty. A vital element in this test of observation and mental recording, the first two of Dr. Eliot's fundamental processes, quoted by Professor Bennett, was the fact that the picture had to be carried for a moment in the mind,

because the three pages containing the two elements to be compared could not be spread out before the eyes at one time.

Let me pass now to the group that is, in my judgment, most interesting to a Latinist. On a certain page were printed 12 sentences. In each sentence 5, 6, or 7 words were omitted, space being left vacant to indicate that something was to be supplied. The directions were as follows:

On each line of dots—write the word or words that make the best meaning; each sentence completed with entire correctness counts three. A substantially correct completion will count one. Two will be subtracted from your score for each foolish or irrelevant completion of a sentence.

Let me give you a few of these sentences.

3. — else in nature is — grandeur possible — in the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River.

4. One of the — characteristic features of the latter half of the nineteenth century seemed to be the — of international connections. Men — all nations seemed to be drawing — in every department of —.

6. Let us very briefly examine the social forces — at work concentrating or — the ownership — wealth.

12. The life of man in society is a unit, but — the limitations of the mind, it is — for — of study to divide it — and to examine — separately.

In every one of the sentences which I have quoted from this group, it will be observed that the nature of the word which is to be supplied is forced inexorably by the logic of the words which are given. For example, in sentence 4, the word 'together' is forced by the word 'connections'. In 6, the word 'distributing' or a synonym of it is forced by the word 'concentrating'. In 12, 'the limitations of the mind' are evidently the cause of the division of the 'unit' mentioned, and, if a unit is divided, it is necessarily divided into 'parts'. I need not point out to you that, in every passage set for translation, there is present this coercive power of the words and the phrases that are known, helping the translator to fix precisely the elements and the logical relations that are unknown or somewhat doubtful. Punctuation itself is one of these coercive and helpful factors. If sentence 3 above had closed with an interrogation point instead of a period, the space at the beginning of the sentence would be filled by the word 'where', instead of by the word 'nowhere'.

With these preliminary observations, let me now ask your consideration of the passage set on the Cicero paper last June, to be translated at sight.

The passage was as follows:

*The thoroughness of Caesar's conquest of Gaul.*

Bellum Gallicum, patres conscripti, C. Caesare imperatore gestum est, antea tantum modo repulsum. Ipse ille C. Marius influentis in Italiam Gallorum maximas copias repressit, non ipse ad eorum urbis sedisque penetravit. Modo ille meorum laborum, periculorum, consiliorum socius, C. Pompeius, fortissimus vir, ortum repente bellum Allobrogum atque hac scelerata coniuratione excitatum proclius fregit eosque



domuit<sup>1</sup> qui lacesierant, sed ea victoria contentus republica metu liberata quievit<sup>2</sup>. C. Caesaris longe aliam video fuisse rationem; non enim sibi solum cum iis quos iam armatos contra populum Romanum videbat bellandum esse duxit, sed totam Galliam in nostram dicionem<sup>3</sup> esse redigendam. Itaque cum acerrimis nationibus et maximis Germanorum et Helvetiorum proeliis felicissime decertavit; ceteras domuit, imperio populi Romani parere aduefecit<sup>4</sup>, et quas regiones quasque gentis nullae nobis antea litterae, nulla vox, nulla fama notas fecerat, eas noster imperator nosterque exercitus et populi Romani arma peragrarunt<sup>5</sup>.—CICERO, *De Provinciis Consularibus*, 32, 33.

I venture to think that this passage is singularly well chosen for this purpose. There is one theme, and one only, the theme, to wit, that is stated in the caption. This "thoroughness of Caesar's conquest of Gaul" is made clear in Cicero's usually characteristic manner, partly by direct description, partly by contrast with the lack of thoroughness of two other generals. Broadly speaking, offensive warfare is set over against defensive warfare. If, for the moment, we may use A to represent the idea of offensive warfare, and B to represent the idea of defensive warfare, the passage runs in effect as follows:

'With Caesar as our commander, it has been A, before it was merely B. With Marius in command, it was B, it was not A. Recently, in the case of Pompey, it was B, it was not more (i. e. it was not A). But Caesar's plan was quite different. He thought that he had to do not only B, but also A. Accordingly, he did B, very successfully; he then did A, and regions and tribes before quite unknown were traversed by our general and our army.'

Of a passage thus built up it is obviously true that the necessary clue to the fundamental idea may be got at several different points. The student, in other words, has several chances of success instead of one. In this instance, however, wherever in the passage he catches the clue from the passage itself, he finds that it is the same that he has already noted in the caption.

The theme is developed, as I have said, in Cicero's characteristic manner. Even a casual reading of the six speeches of Cicero which are commonly read in the High School course, especially of the speeches for the Manilian Law and for Archias, must cause one to marvel at the constant and almost dazzling use of balance. Everywhere the thought is made clear by phrases that involve contrast or comparison, and everywhere the words that express the similar or dissimilar ideas are set in a grammatical framework that defines with sharp precision the nature of the logical relation. He is constantly saying to us, in Hamlet's words, "Look here upon this picture, and on this". If, for example, he wishes to make such a contrast between ideas as is exemplified in the sight passage of last June, we shall find him using, in the speech for the Manilian Law, the diptychs *non C sed D* (15 times); *non tam C quam D* (1); *non modo non C sed D* (1); *non modo C sed etiam D* (6); *non modo C sed D* (3); *non solum C sed etiam D* (6);

*non solum C sed D quoque* (1); *non solum C sed D* (1); *C non D* (2); *non minus C quam D* (1): a total of 37 instances of such bracketing of negative with affirmative statement. Of course, this list provides only a taste of the varieties of balance. The ideas are linked by *aut* . . . *aut*, *neque* . . . *et*, *et* . . . *et*, *cum* . . . *tum*, *ut* . . . *sic*, *partim* . . . *partim*, *alter* . . . *alter*; or the balance is involved in the nature of the words, *illa* . . . *haec*, *in Italiam* . . . *apud exteras nationes*, *servire populo Romano quam imperare aliis*. To give you a full list of the extraordinary variety of forms that Cicero uses would be equivalent to reading the whole speech to you. Substantially the same thing may be said of the speech for Archias, and of the speeches against Catiline. No other element in Cicero's style contributes so much to the clear conveyance of his thought. In this connection, the results of the Board's examinations suggest to me two questions: (1) What proportion of our protégés gain a practical acquaintance with this element, and with its function?; (2) What proportion of our protégés come to see how greatly they can improve the work that they do for their English teachers if through this study of Cicero's effectiveness they learn (a) how to conceive their thoughts precisely and (b) how to express them in balanced form.

Let me turn now to some individual points. In the volume already referred to, Professor Bennett quotes Professor Shorey<sup>3</sup> in part as follows:

And as often as he <the student> is forced to reconsider in the light of the context the mechanically memorized meaning of a word or phrase, he has impressed upon his mind the truth which the student of the more rigid working formulas of the physical sciences is so apt to miss, that words are not unalterable talismans, but chameleon-hued symbols, taking shape and color from their associates.

In the first sentence of the passage set for translation at sight, a very common rendering of *Bellum Gallicum C. Caesare imperatore gestum est* was 'The Gallic War was waged by Gaius Caesar as commander'. To this rendering two exceptions must be taken. In the first place, the word *gestum* (*est*) is here set in contrast with the word *repulsum* and derives its special force from the latter word. The opposition is not between waging war and *not* waging war, but between offensive and defensive campaigning. If the word 'waged' is to be used at all in the translation, we must say at least 'really waged' or 'actively waged'. The point involved cannot be too much stressed if we are at all concerned to encourage our students to use words, not as things in themselves, but as the representatives of ideas and facts. No pains are too great to be taken to prevent them from ever getting the idea that a word is a dead and unchangeable thing, and that a Latin word normally corresponds to one and the same English word. If such an idea once gains permanent lodgment in the mind, real translating becomes absolutely impossible. The ren-

<sup>1</sup>domuit, from domo, 'subdue'. <sup>2</sup>quievit, from quieto, 'rest'.  
<sup>3</sup>dicionem, equivalent to imperium. <sup>4</sup>aduefecit, from aduefacio, 'accustom'.  
<sup>5</sup>peragrarunt, from peragro, 'travel through'.

<sup>3</sup>Discipline vs. Disipation, The School Review 5 (1907), 228.



dering 'by Caesar as commander' may have been a free version of the Latin words, the syntax of which was correctly observed. But one is forced to suspect that some, at least, failed to see that the preposition *a* was not printed in the sentence. If this suspicion be justified, we have a right to recall the fact that the ablative of the personal agent (so-called) with the preposition *a* or *ab* occurs not less than 37 times in the two speeches prescribed for intensive reading; what the student saw, or should have seen in this sentence is really an ablative absolute (so-called),

an idiom that our English style practically abhors. Every such ablative absolute has to be examined with care prior to an English rendering. It may express time, cause, concession, condition, attendant circumstance, means, or what not, and must be rendered accordingly<sup>1</sup>.

In this instance, the balance which runs through the whole passage clearly makes *antea* the word which enables us to determine the function of this ablative absolute. It means, then, I take it, 'ever since Caesar took command'. I venture to express here the earnest hope that the term ablative absolute will disappear from the Latin Grammars of the future, together with all other terms that do not in themselves explain the nature of the grammatical construction to which they are applied. Every single grammatical term that is used unnecessarily inevitably acts as a barrier between the mind of the student and the possibility of comprehending the relation between the things mentioned in the text. I wonder sometimes whether the Grammars of the future will have even half as many terms as we now inflict upon our protégés.

The second sentence of the passage caused very great difficulty, chiefly due to the word *influētis*. Let me give you some typical mistranslations, premising that these translations, like all the others that I shall quote to you, have been taken from the answer-books of 22 candidates, all of whom passed with marks ranging from 60 to 86%.

Marius by influxes into Italy defeated  
Marius running into Italy  
Marius journeying into Italy  
Marius influenced by that very man drove back in Italy  
Marius himself was influential in Italy  
Marius, the man of influence in Italy  
Marius repressed troops of the influential Gauls in Italy

Ten out of the 22 candidates translated *in Italiam* by 'in Italy'. Did you smile when earlier in the paper I quoted to you the test in which the candidates last September were asked to connect circle 5 with circle 8 by a line running *under* circle 6 and *over* circle 7? That was a test of observation and of power to handle in a very simple way the very simple things that were observed. I have no statistics as to the number of times that the preposition *in* is used with the accusative case in the authors read in the High School course, but I think that I may safely say that the construction occurs often enough to make it an extremely simple one. Is it

unreasonable to maintain that, until simple grammatical usages of this sort are as familiar to our pupils as the multiplication table, our teaching may deserve the adjective 'devoted', but it can hardly be called 'effective'?

But this translation of *in Italiam* by 'in Italy' instead of 'into Italy', a mistake made after three years' study of Latin, was not only in itself wrong, was not only a mistake that should not have been made by any considerable proportion of a group at the end of one year's study of Latin; it operated to prevent these candidates from solving correctly the problem of the word *influētis*. I venture to think that they should have known or should have been able to construct the verb *influxo*. *Fluo* itself occurs twice in the first book of the Gallic War (Chapters 6 and 12). *Influxo* is used six times in the first four books of Caesar: 1.8, 1.12, 3.9, 4.1, 4.10 bis. In all these instances, except 4.1, *influxo* is followed by *in* and an accusative, as in the sight passage that we are discussing; in 4.1 it is followed by *quo*, which is equivalent, as every student should know, to *ad* or *in* with an accusative. Let us add to these facts that *flumen* occurs sixty-two times in the first four books of the Gallic War, and that the formation of this noun from the verb *fluo* should become familiar in the first two years. The objection may be raised that, in this passage of Cicero, the verb is used of a stream of people, not of a river current. I should say, in reply, that one of the most elementary principles in any study of the growth of language, thought of as a medium for conveying ideas from one mind to another, is this: that every word expressive of physical action may come to be used, and a very large number of such words actually do come to be used in a figurative sense. Such a figurative development should be studied and made a familiar idea in the first two or three chapters, as it were, of any course in the botany of language. Our protégés should be from the outset trained to think of words as possessed of life, in other words to think of them in terms of botany, not of geology.

The most striking thing about the translations of *influētis* is, to my mind, the fact that it was not taken as a present participle of some verb of motion. Such an identification is absolutely forced by a correct translation of *in Italiam*, for it would obviously be nonsense to say that Marius (we must at least assume acquaintance with Marius as a Roman general) drove back forces of the Gauls into Italy, when the caption of the whole passage indicates that the scene of the action is Gaul, not Italy at all. If, then, *repressit* does not represent the motion required by *in Italiam*, *influētis* must supply the needed idea of motion.

Why should anyone have failed to think of *influētis* as a present participle? There are no fewer than fifty-five present participles in the six orations of Cicero, and in the first four books of Caesar there are forty-one. Of these ninety-six present participles, thirteen are accusative plurals, ending, therefore, in *-is*; and three are genitive plurals ending in *-ium*, and even if, for the

<sup>1</sup>So Professor Bennett, *The Teaching of Latin and Greek in the Secondary School*, 12.

moment, the possibility that *influentis* was an accusative plural did not occur to the mind, why was not that possibility suggested immediately by the two accusatives in the latter half of the same sentence, i. e. by *urbis sedisque*, which stand in the printed text immediately under *influentis*?

The words *ortum repente bellum Allobrogum atque hac scelerata coniuratione excitatum proeliis fregit* were variously mistranslated.

Pomptinus quickly won the awful war and the uprising in this wicked conspiracy

P. took command of the war which had suddenly arisen and the base inciting of armies

P. broke up by his suddenness the recent Allobrogum war and by battles the one incited by this crime

P. broke up by a few battles the Allobroges who started the war and who stirred up this shameful conspiracy

P. broke up the sudden costal war with the Allobroges and in battles with this despicable league, broke up its army

P. captured the source of the war and revenge for that disgrace in pitched battles

P. harassed the place and the army in that criminal conspiracy

Why, pray, was this sentence found difficult? It is true that the noun *bellum* is modified by two participles and is placed between them. The same order is adopted later in the passage in the words *cum acerrimis nationibus et maximis Germanorum et Helvetiorum*. Let us admit that the usual order in this combination is either *bellum grave et periculosum* (M. L. 4) or *singulari eximique virtute* (M. L. 3), but the speech for the Manilian Law shows in § 6 the order *certissima populi Romani vectigalia et maxima*, and you will find this same arrangement used in the speech for Archias, §§ 4, 16 bis. This order, furthermore, is fairly frequent in the type shown in Pro Lege Manilia 59, *cepit magnum suae virtutis fructum ac dignitatis*, and in Pro Archia 28, *attigit hic versibus atque incohavit*. This form is used in the first mentioned speech eight times (12 bis, 13, 14, 19, 23, 53, 59), in the plea for Archias three times, (19, 28 bis). Surely, then, this order, because it occurs and is different from the English order, should have been made sufficiently familiar to the candidates to save them from being perplexed when they meet it.

Difficulty was caused by the words *sed ea victoria contentus re publica metu liberata quievit*. Is this sentence really too difficult to be set at the end of two years of Latin? But these candidates have studied Latin for three years. Some typical mistranslations of fairly frequent occurrence were these:

He rested content with this victory, fearing the freedom of the state <You will note that such a fear is quite at variance with the whole argument of the speech, in addition to the syntactical impossibility>.

The state, free from fear, rested content with this victory

Satisfied with this victory, the republic rested

But the state, content with this victory and free from fear, rested

The whole difficulty is one of imperfect observation; no attention was paid to the gender of *contentus* or to the spelling of *re publica*.

If the sentence thus discussed seems easy, what shall we say of *C. Caesaris longe aliam video fuisse rationem*? The word *longe* is, of course, most common in High School Latin in the sense of distance, but it is certainly used often enough for the purpose of raising an adjective or adverb to a higher power. *Longe alia* is used twice in the Gallic War (3.9, 3.28), and *longe* is combined with a superlative five times in the Gallic War (1.2, 1.23, 3.8, 3.21, 4.1). The mistranslations were extraordinarily varied.

I see that far away there was another plan of C.

I see that plan of C. was farther reaching

I see the other plan had been far from right

I see C. far off had another plan

I see the other plan of C. was far off

I see that there was another method of C. for a long time

I see some plan of C. was not far distant

I see another plan of C. was not at hand

I see some plan of C. has been long

I see C. had long entertained a plan

I see for a long time there was another plan of C.

These renderings, so far as the words themselves are concerned, seem to be due to two defects of knowledge: (1) *longe* was thought of in terms of time or physical distance, and not in terms of figurative distance; (2) *aliam* was, in a purely stereotyped way, taken to mean 'other' or 'another', i. e. the second or third instance. The mind did not take the step of conceiving this 'other' as 'different'. Why is it unreasonable to maintain, as I do now, that the word *alius* may always mean 'different', and, in a very large number of cases, *must* mean 'different'? The reason is found, not in the word itself, but in the concrete facts of the animate or the inanimate world. There is involved here a process of reasoning, surely not a difficult one. Recall, for a moment, the analysis of the whole passage which I gave to you a few minutes ago. As I then pointed out, the passage consists of a series of contrasts. It is absolutely impossible that Caesar should have had 'another' plan, that is, a second plan, for the simple reason that no first plan of his has been spoken of. The mode of action of Marius and of Pomptinus, if mentioned in a eulogy of Caesar's thoroughness, must certainly be thought of as 'different' from Caesar's mode of action. It must certainly be introduced as a foil to show Caesar's effectiveness, by comparing it with the relative ineffectiveness of the other two. In connection with the sentences which I quoted from the psychological test I spoke of the coercive power of the known elements in a sentence (or paragraph) helping one to determine the meaning and the function of the unknown elements. We have, in the Latin words now under discussion, a very simple, and, I think, a very striking example of this kind. The meaning of these simple words in their setting in the argument should have been forced upon the translator's mind, but the translator's reasoning was unsound, and the result was nonsense, so far as the argument was concerned.

The last sentence of the passage, *quas regiones quasque gentes . . . peragraverunt*, caused very great diffi-

culty. The mould in which the thought was cast was evidently puzzling. Yet this arrangement of the two clauses, in which the relative clause comes first, is quite common in High School Latin and should have caused no difficulty. In the speeches for Pompey and for Archias, it is used twenty times, seven times in the first named speech (§§ 19, 32, 44, 59, 62, 69, 71); in the speech for Archias thirteen times (§§ 1, 10, 11, 13, 18, 21, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, 32 *bis*). Of these twenty instances of the reverse order of the relative and the principle clause, five (P. 32, 44; A. 11, 25, 28) lack the resumptive correlative pronoun in the main clause. The connection is, of course, more easily made when, as happens in our sight passage, the demonstrative pronoun which resumes the relative is expressed. Let me give you some mistranslations:

He made known to us nations which before had no letters no voice and no fame, our commander traveled through those nations

He had made known those nations and tribes who had sent before no letters or word or report to us and our commander traveled through them

made known to us those regions and races of no letters with no voice and fame, our commander traveled through them

previously no letters, no voice, no fame came to us telling through what regions and among what people our commander, etc.

those regions and tribes which had heard nothing before of our voice and fame to those our commander reached

he made to be reborn those regions and those tribes never known to us only through letters. Our general traveled to those regions

In handling the subject which I was asked to present to you, I might have analyzed, not only the passage set for sight translation, but also the passages taken from the prescribed reading. I might have analyzed, not only the question paper of last June, but one or more question papers from previous years. Had I adopted either of these plans, the details would of course have been different, but the results would have been much the same. The mistakes which were made in translating the sight passage last June are, after all, typical of all mistakes in translating made by the Board's candidates. I have in one way or another already described them. Let me, in closing, summarize them. Our candidates fail because they do not use as they should the four processes, the description of which Professor Bennett quoted from President Eliot. Repeatedly, they do not see with their brains the printed words that meet their eyes. Often, when they do see what is on the printed page, they apparently make no mental record, even momentarily, of what they have thus accurately observed. Above all, even where the problems are very simple, and of a type that has occurred again and again and again in their School reading, their reasoning is unsound, the words are wrongly put together, and the result is nonsense.

If you ask me what precisely we must do to improve the situation, I can only make a few suggestions. In the first place, *make experiments*. I cannot bring

myself to believe that any really good teacher ever teaches the same thing in precisely the same way many times, *unless* he is perfectly satisfied with the results of that particular way. In the second place, we must—of this I personally am as sure as that I am now speaking to you—we must *make* the words mere *symbols* of ideas. We must not allow our protégés to deal with the words as the final elements. They must deal in every sentence and in every paragraph with the facts and the ideas there expressed precisely as they would deal with those facts and ideas in the actual course of events in every day life, in other words, with the same sense of contact with actual objective fact as if they were *watching* with delighted or agonized feeling the movements of a football in the most critical game of the season. This sense of contact with reality can, I think, be gained if we dramatize everything that we read. I do not know of any other way equally promising. One further point seems to me of equal importance. We have far too much formal grammar. We should have only that kind of grammar which is immediately, and not at one or two removes, the embodiment of a reasoning process. Grammatical terminology, in so far as it may readily be used as a label, merely tends to the disuse of the power to think. Whatever we do or fail to do, we must, at all hazards, develop this power to think. To fail here is to fail in the primary aim of education.

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## REVIEW

Introduction to Latin. By Henry S. Lupold. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company (1918, 1919). Part One, pp. xiii + 107: 80 cents; Part Two, pp. xi + 355: \$1.20.

Of this work, Part One is designed for the Seventh Grade, Part Two for the Eighth Grade. The purpose is to prepare Junior High School students to do the regular Second Year Latin work when they enter the Ninth Grade. In Part One the seventy brief lessons deal with the first declension, nouns of the second declension in *-us* and *-um*, the first three tenses of *sum*, and the indicative active and passive of the first conjugation. Two principles of agreement and five simple constructions are explained clearly and reviewed constantly in the Exercises. The pupil acquires a working vocabulary of about 175 Latin words, and becomes acquainted with 700 English derivatives. After the Lessons, there are Abbreviations from Latin (page 85), Latin Words and Phrases Common in English (86-87), three pages of Latin fables, with notes, three pages of Poems in Latin (Mica, Mica, Parva Stella, with English rendering, America, and The Shepherd Psalm) and The Lord's Prayer, and, finally, a Latin-English Vocabulary (95-107). The illustrations are small but interesting.

In the eyes of every teacher of beginners, the opening pages of a book are its most important part, since it is



the work of the first few weeks that largely determines a pupil's attitude towards his work and often his ultimate success or failure. The approach to both parts of the work before us is admirable. Part One begins with the sentence, *Agricola aquam portat*, from which are developed the characteristics of Latin so strange to an English-speaking child. Not till Lesson IX does the child see the complete paradigm of the first declension. New forms and new words are introduced slowly; the exercises are plentiful and vivacious. The Lessons are veritable lessons; it will never be necessary to divide them. Each Lesson is homogeneous, and the series is so varied that the pupil will always be interested by diversity of work. Thus, Lesson XXVI gives the plural of nouns in *-us*, with a model sentence to show the use of each case, and one or two simple notes; Lesson XXVII gives a vocabulary of six words in *-us* to be learned and declined; Lesson XXVIII consists of ten Latin phrases and sentences to be translated; Lesson XXIX gives ten English sentences to be translated; Lesson XXX contains the noun used in Lesson XXVI, this time modified by an adjective, and five other nouns, similarly modified, to be declined. Since, in the Seventh Grade, assignments for home work must be short and the class periods are brief, this singleness of matter and brevity of treatment seem admirable.

Part Two, in 144 Lessons, contains all the remaining necessary forms and all the fundamental constructions, including, late in the course, such constructions as indirect statement and question, purpose and result, independent uses of the subjunctive, and, at the very end, conditional sentences. Five hundred new Latin words and many new English derivatives are given. Besides frequent paragraphs of connected Latin reading in the Lessons, there are seven pages (255-262) of Latin Fables and Stories, three of Latin Songs (*Gaudeamus Igitur*, *O Dulcis Amor*, *Woodman, Spare That Tree*: 252-254), a summary of forms and syntax (263-305), and Vocabularies (Latin-English, 313-333, English-Latin, 334-355).

On first glance Part Two may seem in bulk disproportionate to Part One: 144 Lessons to 70, 248 pages to 84. But every teacher will admit the advisability of going slowly at first and of laying a sure foundation in accuracy. Moreover, the advantages of beginning Latin in the Seventh Grade are not to be measured by the amount of ground pupils can cover in that Grade.

The Lessons, in Part Two are longer than those in Part One, including, usually, forms, a grammatical principle, a very brief vocabulary, and some practice work. Exercises in translation are generally kept for separate Lessons. This Part, too, begins excellently,

reviewing the first declension by giving, for the first time in the course, a masculine noun of that declension modified by an adjective. Next comes a treatment of nouns in *-ius* and *-ium*, and of nouns in *-er* and *-ir*, so that a thorough review of nouns is accomplished while the pupil thinks he is doing something new.

The arrangement of this Part is also very good, for there is such variety in the forms presented that the pupil does not become tired of one thing before another is presented; no forms are treated out of their place in the general scheme of declensions and conjugations. In one or two places only does it seem that the order could be bettered. Deponent verbs of the four conjugations should be treated just after the fourth conjugation is completed, and an *-ior* deponent just after *capio*; in this book they are put last, even after the irregular verbs, so that a valuable opportunity for clinching the passive voice is lost. *Vis* and *iter*, moreover, are put immediately after *-i* stems, at the close of the third declension, a position of doubtful wisdom. The reviewer also doubts the wisdom of the detailed treatment of consonant stems of the third declension.

The grammatical principles included in Part Two are, for the most part, simply and clearly worded. Some are especially well stated: witness the statements of the dative of possessor and the ablative of specification. But the ablative absolute is not treated with equal happiness, and the rule of the dative of purpose seems hopelessly cumbersome for young minds.

If we are to teach First Year pupils any clause involving the subjunctive, the doctrine of the sequence of tenses seems unavoidable. A simpler and more diagrammatic treatment than Mr. Lupold's would seem more suitable for young students. When they see how unconsciously they use *can* and *could*, *may* and *might* in different English sentences, they readily see that time falls into two great divisions: the present, which includes also all that we hope and intend to do in the future, and the past, which is a closed matter. After the tenses are listed in two columns to show this division and an impassable barrier (of chalk) has been drawn between the columns, students can so visualize the two groups that the elements of sequence have no mysteries even for the immature.

Mr. Lupold's work, then, in its two Parts, forms a course that must be successful because it is practical. More than any other teacher of those whose works I have seen he keeps in mind the immature point of view of the student of the Junior High School, and adapts to that immaturity both the quantity and the quality of the matter in his Lessons.

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